

Thyroid diseases

Thyroid hormone is important for metabolism in all body cells.

Physiology

- Thyroid produces → Mainly T_4 with $\frac{1}{2}$ life of 7 days
→ T_3 with $\frac{1}{2}$ life of 1 day
- T_4 is converted into T_3 in peripheral tissues [T_3 is the active form]
- Most of T_4 & T_3 are bound to plasma protein e.g. Thyroid-binding globulin TBG
- Pregnancy & OCP → ↑ in TBG → ↑ Total T_3 & T_4 but free T_3 & T_4 are normal.
- Nephrotic synd & Cirrhosis → ↓ TBG → ↓ Total T_3 & T_4 but free T_3 & T_4 are normal

Investigation of thyroid disease

- Pituitary thyroid-stimulating hormone [TSH] stimulates production of T_3 & T_4
- T_3 and T_4 inhibit the production of TSH
- Diseases of thyroid may be:
 1. Primary: thyroid disease
 - Hyperthyroidism → ↑ T_4 + ↓ TSH
 - Hypothyroidism → ↓ T_4 + ↑ TSH
 2. Secondary: Pit. disease
 - Hyperthyroidism → ↑ TSH + ↑ T_4
 - Hypothyroidism → ↓ TSH + ↓ T_4
- TSH is most useful Ix of thyroid function except when there is a Pit. disease

Goitre

- It is enlargement of thyroid.
- Pt may be
 - Hyperthyroid → Graves disease, Multinodular Goiter
 - Euthyroid → Simple diffuse goiter, Multinodular Goiter
 - Hypothyroid → Hashimoto thyroiditis
- Ultrasound is the most accurate method to assess thyroid size.
- WHO grading of goitre: *in clinic.*
 - Grade 0:** No palpable or visible goitre.
 - Grade 1:** Palpable goitre (larger than terminal phalanges of thumbs).
 - 1 A Goitre detectable only on palpation.
 - 1 B Goitre palpable and visible with neck extended.
 - Grade 2:** Goitre visible with neck in normal position.
 - Grade 3:** Large goitre visible from a distance.

Clinical features

	Hyperthyroidism	Hypothyroidism
General	Hot intolerance Gynecomastia <i>↑ testosterone</i> Palmar erythema <i>↑</i>	Cold intolerance Effusions (pleural, pericardial, Ascites) <i>due to accumulation of protein in interstitial spaces</i>
Gyne	Amenorrhea Infertility <i>anovulation mechanism</i>	Menorrhagia (rarely oligomenorrhea) Infertility
GIT	↑ appetite + Wt loss (rarely gain) Diarrhea /	Weight gain Constipation
Muscle	Proximal myopathy Periodic paralysis (Asian pt)	Muscle cramps ↑ Creatine kinase
CVS	Tachycardia Atrial fibrillation High-output cardiac failure Hypertension	Bradycardia Ischemic heart disease <i>*</i> Hypercholesterolemia Hypertension
Neuro	Hyperreflexia Irritability Tremors Chorea	Delayed relaxation of Ankle reflexes <i>vi</i> Slow thinking & speech Cerebellar Ataxia Peripheral neuropathy <i>↓ paraesthesia</i> <i>* can be in hips</i>
Eyes	Lid retraction, lid lag	Periorbital edema
Blood	Microcytic anaemia Leucopenia	Macrocytic or Normocytic anaemia If menorrhagia → Microcytic
Skin	Sweating Urticaria Hair loss Onycholysis [Plummer nails]	Yellow skin (due to carotenaemia) Non-pitting LLE edema [myxedema] Hair loss including eyebrows Erythema ab igne <i>vi</i>
Lab	Hypercalcemia	Hyponatremia (due to ↑ ADH)
Other	Osteoporosis Glycosuria Lymphadenopathy ↑ Alkaline phosphatase	Deposition of mucopolysaccharides in: • Internal ear → Deafness • Vocal cords → Hoarseness • Wrist joint → Carpal tunnel synd

Hyperthyroidism

Etiology

1. **Graves disease** = diffuse toxic goiter [most common cause]
2. **Multinodular goiter**
3. **Toxic Hot nodule** [Plummer's disease]
4. **Thyroiditis** → Post-viral [de Quervain's]: Thyroid painful + ↑ ESR
→ Post-partum: self-limiting, no relation bw abnormal TFT & depression

Uncommon cause

1. Secondary: Excess production of TSH by pituitary tumor (very rare).
2. Thyrotoxicosis factitia (exogenous intake of thyroxine) (Psychological problem)
3. Early Hashimoto thyroiditis
4. Ectopic thyroid tissue (struma ovarii).
5. Drugs: Amiodarone.

Grave's disease

* short case =

Epidemiology: • ♀. 30-50 yrs

- Associated with HLA-B8, DR3
- Smoking ↑ the risk
- Association with other autoimmune diseases

Etiology: autoimmune disease with IgG Thyroid-stimulating immunoglobulin [TSI] binds to TSH receptors → diffuse goiter + ↑ thyroid hormone production.

C/P: Features of hyperthyroidism + Features seen ONLY in Grave's but not in other causes of thyrotoxicosis:

- **Eye signs:** Exophthalmos, Ophthalmoplegia → diplopia. Optic nerve compression
 - The orbit contains excess glycosaminoglycans produced by fibroblast.
 - It affects 25-50% of pts. Pt may be eu-, hypo- or hyperthyroid
 - **Smoking & Radioiodine Therapy** → ↑ eye disease
 - Rx: Steroids, Radiotherapy, Surgery.
- **Pretibial myxedema** in < 10% of pts, due to accumulation of mucopolysaccharides
- **Thyroid acropachy:** clubbing of finger
- Bruit over thyroid on auscultation is pathognomonic

Ix:

- TFT: ↑ T₄ & T₃ + ↓ TSH [Note: 5% of pts have Normal T₄ + ↑ T₃]
- Autoantibodies → **Anti-TSH receptor stimulating antibodies TSI** (95%)
→ Anti-thyroid peroxidase (microsomal) antibodies (50%)
- Diffusely ↑ **Radio-iodine uptake** Radioisotope scan.

Treatment

- β -blockers e.g. propranolol for symptomatic relief \uparrow HR - Diarrhea - sweating.
- **Antithyroid drugs: [Carbimazole, Methimazole, Propylthiouracil]**
 - They are given for 12-18 months.
 - When the drugs are stopped, relapse occurs in 50% of pt within 2 yrs and either surgery or radioiodine is used.
 - S/E of carbimazole: Skin rashes, Agranulocytosis (^{+ Fever} sore throat is 1st symptom) and pts must be warned to stop the drug and seek urgent medical advice.
- If medical treatment failed:
 - Subtotal thyroidectomy
 - Radioactive iodine ^{131}I : hypothyroidism rates 25% after 1 yr & 50% after 10 yrs

Note: after treatment of hyperthyroidism TSH may remain suppressed for Months

Multinodular goiter & Toxic adenoma

- Multinodular goiter is more in elderly & associated with arrhythmias & heart failure
- Remission is unlikely with anti-thyroidal drug. So Rx is β -blockers for symptoms and Radioactive iodine or surgery for thyroid disease

Thyrotoxicosis in pregnancy

- Thyrotoxicosis in pregnancy & breast feeding the drug of choice **Propylthiouracil**
- Subtotal thyroidectomy can be in the second trimester.
- Radioactive iodine is absolutely contraindicated in pregnancy & breast-feeding

Thyrotoxic crisis (Thyroid storm)

- Life threatening thyrotoxicosis with mortality rate of 10%.
- Precipitated by infection OR post-subtotal thyroidectomy OR ^{131}I therapy

C/P: **Fever, irritability**, confusion, tachycardia, AF \pm heart failure. Vomiting & diarrhea

Rx: \rightarrow Oxygen + IV fluid + Cooling

hyperthermia $> 38.5^\circ\text{C}$.

\rightarrow Antibiotics

\rightarrow β -blockers (Propranolol) for symptoms \rightarrow \downarrow HR, AF

\rightarrow Propylthiouracil orally OR Carbimazole [carbimazole can be given rectally]

Propylthiouracil is better because it is \downarrow release & peripheral conversion of T_4 to T_3

\rightarrow Iodine: inhibit release and conversion of T_4 to T_3 [Sodium ipodate is an alternative and it restore serum T_3 levels to normal in 48-72 hours] temporarily affect.

\rightarrow Dexamethasones: inhibit release and conversion of T_4 to T_3

Hypothyroidism

Etiology

1. Autoimmune disease
 - Hashimoto's thyroiditis: with Goiter
 - Atrophic hypothyroidism: no goiter
2. Post-thyroidectomy or ^{131}I Rx
3. Iodine deficiency → Radioactive Rx
4. Drugs: Lithium
5. 2ndry to Hypopituitarism

Hashimoto thyroiditis

Epidemiology: 30-40 yrs ♀. The **most common cause for hypothyroidism**.

- Association with other autoimmune diseases e.g. Pernicious anemia, DM type 1, Addison, Vitilligo.

Etiology: autoimmune disease → chronic inflammatory process of the thyroid with lymphocytic infiltration of the gland. & plasma cells.

Note: They have increased risk of thyroid lymphoma

C/P: Features of hypothyroidism ± Goiter which is painless.

Investigations

- TFT → ↓ T_4 & T_3 + ↑ TSH
- Autoantibodies → Anti-TSH receptor antibodies (20%)
→ Anti-thyroid peroxidase & Anti-thyroglobulin (90%)
→ ANA may be +ve
- Diffusely ↓ **Radio-iodine uptake**
- CBC: may be macrocytic, normocytic, or microcytic.
- ECG: bradycardia with low voltage complexes.

Note: Anti-thyroid peroxidase & Anti-thyroglobulin antibodies are present in 10-20% of normal population but in low titer.

Treatment

- T_4 [Thyroxine] supplement. Start at small dose then increase.
- Overtreatment is a risk factor for osteoporosis → 25.1 day.
- In pt with ischemic heart disease the lowest dose should be used initially, because exacerbation of ischemia → MI or sudden death are complications of thyroxine Rx
- In pregnancy → ↑ dose of Thyroxine

Myxedema coma

- Rare medical emergency with mortality rate of 50%
- **C/P:** decreased level of consciousness with:
 - Hypothyroidism → T_3 IV + Precipitating factors: infection → antibiotic
 - Hypothermia → gradual rewarming $< 35^\circ C$
 - Hypoglycemia → glucose IV
 - Hypoventilation → O_2 & ventilation + IV fluid for circulatory support
 - Hydrocortisone → because it may \downarrow & associated with \downarrow cortisone

↳ to prevent Addison's crisis.

Asymptomatic abnormality in TFT

➤ Subclinical Hypothyroidism

- \uparrow TSH but T_3 , T_4 normal
- Pt have \uparrow risk of AF & osteoporosis so they are treated. [usually ^{131}I]

➤ Subclinical Hyperthyroidism: \downarrow TSH but T_3 , T_4 normal

- **Sick euthyroid syndrome:** during systemic illness TSH , T_4 and T_3 may be low. Changes are reversible upon recovery from the systemic illness.

if high \Rightarrow pathological.

Simple diffuse goiter

- It is enlargement of thyroid with no abnormality in TFT or antibodies → No Rx
- More common in ♀ bw 15 and 25 yrs & during pregnancy. Family history is +ve

Note: Presence of vocal cord paralysis, lymphadenopathy, and fixation to underlying or overlying tissues suggest malignancy and not simple goiter.

Riedel thyroiditis

- Rare fibrous induration of thyroid

Effect of iodine on thyroid status

- It may cause transient hypothyroidism (Wolff-Chaikoff effect)
- Hyperthyroidism (Jod-Basedow phenomenon)

Cushing syndrome



Definition: clinical state the occurs due to glucocorticoides

Etiology

➤ Iatrogenic (Cushinoid syndrome) **the most common cause.**

➤ Spontaneous

1. ACTH-dependent

- Pituitary adenoma (**Cushing disease**): 80% of spontaneous cases ♀ > ♂
- Ectopic ACTH (bronchial CA) (small cell CA)

* chronic use of steroids

2. ACTH-independent

- Adrenal adenoma
- Adrenal carcinoma
- Adrenal hyperplasia

1- RA
2- Asthma

3. **Pseudocushing**: Alcohol, Depression, Obesity

Clinical features

1. Disturbed metabolism of:

- Fat → Moon-face: rounded face with bloated cheeks.
→ Central obesity with thin limbs (apple-shaped)
→ Buffalo-hump: ↑ fat in the interscapular region
- Carbohydrate → Hyperglycemia, **DM** → Polydipsia & polyuria
- Protein → Muscle: Proximal myopathy
→ Bone: Osteoporosis, Back pain
→ Skin: • Thin skin • Purple striae • Hirsutism • Acne • Bruises

Greasy R - no comedon

2. Disturbed Electrolyte: غدد يابرة

- ↑ activation of aldosterone receptor → Hypermnatremia → **Hypertension**
→ Hypokalemia & Metabolic alkalosis

3. Other:

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|
| • Psychosis or depression | • Infection |
| • Polycythemia → plethora | • Impotence |
| • Peptic ulcer | • Irregular menses |

Note: ↑ ACTH may cause skin hyperpigmentation



Investigations

- CBC: ↑ Neutrophils & RBC, all other cells ↓ (Lymphopenia, Eosinopenia)
- Biochemistry: • Hyperglycemia • Hyponatremia • Hypokalemia • Metabolic alkalosis

➤ Tests to confirm Cushing's syndrome & exclude pseudo-Cushing's

1. Overnight-low dose dexamethasone suppression test (most sensitive)

- If not Cushing → cortisol suppressed
- If Cushing → cortisol is not suppressed

2. 24 hr urinary free cortisol

➤ Test to Localize the site:

1. ACTH level

- If ↑ = ACTH dependent cause [Pit or Ectopic]
- If ↓ = non-ACTH dependent [Adrenal adenoma or carcinoma]

2. High-dose dexamethasone suppression test:

- if pituitary source then cortisol suppressed
- if ectopic/adrenal then no change in cortisol

3. CRH stimulation

- if pituitary source then cortisol rises
- if ectopic/adrenal then no change in cortisol

Petrosal sinus sampling of ACTH may be needed to differentiate between pituitary and ectopic ACTH secretion

➤ Imaging:

- MRI for pituitary
- Abd CT or MRI for Adrenal
- CXR or CT for Ectopic

Treatment

- Surgery is Rx of choice → Trans-sphenoidal resection for Pituitary tumor
→ bilateral Adrenalectomy for adrenal tumor

If bilateral adrenalectomy is used in pts with Pituitary tumor it will to ↑↑↑ ACTH leading to skin hyperpigmentation and called Nelson's syndrome.

- Medical: Corticosteroid synthesis inhibitor: Metyrapone

Primary Hyperaldosteronism [Conn's syndrome]

Etiology:

1. Adrenal adenoma [most common cause]
2. Adrenal hyperplasia

Clinical features & Investigations

- ↑ activation of aldosterone receptor
 - Hypermnatremia → Hypertension
 - Hypokalemia → Weakness
 - Metabolic alkalosis
- High serum aldosterone & Low serum renin
- Abd CT or MRI

Treatment

- Adrenal adenoma → Surgery
- Adrenal hyperplasia → Spironolactone → cause gynaecomastia.
so change & give eplerenone ~ & no hyperkalemia.

Note: In secondary hyperaldosteronism there is high renin → high aldosterone

for eg. HF, cirrhosis, Renal artery stenosis
↳ renal perfusion

(2) Diuretic Rx





Adrenal insufficiency

Definition: Abnormal decrease in cortisol and/or aldosterone.

Etiology

➤ Primary Adrenal failure [Addison's disease]

1. **Autoimmune** adrenalitis is the **most common cause** of Addison's disease. More in ♀ and associated with other autoimmune disease e.g. Vitiligo in 20% of pts.
2. Infection: **TB** (Calcification on X-ray) HIV Fungal
3. Bilateral Adrenalectomy
4. Metastasis from lung or Breast CA
5. **Waterhouse-Friedrichsen synd:** adrenal hemorrhage in meningococcal sepsis

➤ Secondary Adrenal failure [due to low ACTH]

1. **Iatrogenic** is the **most common cause of adrenal insufficiency** [withdrawal of ch. glucocorticoid Rx → ACTH deficiency]
2. Pituitary disease

Clinical features

- ↓ aldosterone → Hyponatremia → **Hypotension** $\uparrow H^+ \Rightarrow$ metabolic acidosis
- ↓ glucocorticoid → Hypoglycemia → **Weakness**
- ↓ androgen → loss of axillary hair in female
- **Abdominal pain**, ↓ Appetite & Weight loss.
- In Primary adrenal failure → ↑ ACTH → **Hyperpigmentation** of
 - Skin
 - Palmar creases
 - Buccal mucosa
 - Scars

[ACTH look like MSH melanocyte-stimulating hormone and stimulate melanocytes]

NOTE: Glucocorticoids depends on ACTH from pituitary. But Aldosterone depends on Renin-Angiotensin system [Not ACTH] So Aldosterone is affected only in primary failure

2mg \Rightarrow no hyper pigmentation & normal BP.

Investigations

- **Short synacthen test:** synthetic ACTH is given Once to stimulate cortisol. It is the 1st of choice. Cortisol levels will not ↑ in primary or secondary adrenal disease.
- Primary & Secondary can be differentiated by:
 - ACTH level: ↑ in primary & ↓ in secondary
 - **Long synacthen test:** ACTH for 3 days will stimulate cortisol if secondary
- Other tests:
 - **CBC:** neutropenia, lymphocytosis, and eosinophilia.
 - ↓ Aldosterone
 - Hyperkalemia
 - Hyponatremia
 - Metabolic acidosis
 - Hypercalcemia
 - Hypoglycemia
 - Urea is ↑ in primary disease but ↓ or Normal in secondary disease

Treatment

- Glucocorticoid replacement → Cortisol (hydrocortisone) is the drug of choice.
- Mineralocorticoid replacement in primary disease → fludrocortisone
- Pt should carry **Steroid card** at all times.
- Dose should be increased in case of stress [Surgery, Infections]

Acute adrenal crisis: Severe hypotension with hyponatremia ± hyperkalemia & hypoglycemia, Abdominal pain, **Vomiting**, Diarrhea. It is precipitated by surgery or infection. Rx: IV hydrocortisone, IV 0.9 Saline and 10% dextrose



Pheochromocytoma

→ adrenaline -
→ nor -
→ dopamine -
↳ sympathetic chain.

Definition: A rare tumor of chromaffin tissue that secretes catecholamines. Mainly occurring in Adrenal medulla.

Rule of tens: • 10% malignant • 10% extra-adrenal • 10% familial • 10% bilateral

It is associated with MEN 2, Neurofibromatosis, von Hippel-Lindau syndrome

Clinical Picture

- **Triad** of Headache + Palpitation + Sweating
- **Hypertension** usually episodic [Attacks of postural hypotension are common]
- Pallor OR Flushing
- Tremors
- Glucose intolerance → abdominal pain + vomiting + constipation + wt loss.

Investigation

1. Increased 24 hours Urinary Vanillyl-mandelic acid (VMA) OR metanephrine
2. Increased catecholamines (adrenaline and noradrenaline) OR metanephrine in plasma or urine.
3. Localization
 - CT or MRI abdomen
 - **MIBG** Meta-Iodo-Benzyl Guanidine scan: can detect chromaffin tissue tissues with overactivity

Treatment

1. Surgical removal of tumor is the Rx of choice
2. Medical Rx: Combined α -blocker [phenoxybenzamine] & β -blocker [Labetalol]
 - **α -blocker should be given first** [because if β -blocker is given first then all catecholamines will work on α -receptors → sever hypertension]
 - Used for pre- & post-operative period OR if surgery is not possible



Multiple-Endocrine-Neoplasia [MEN]

Endocrinal disorders characterized by *tumors* affecting many endocrinal glands with **Autosomal dominant**

MEN 1 [Werner's syndrome]

- Primary hyperparathyroidism [Parathyroid hyperplasia]
- Pituitary tumors [Prolactinoma most common]
- Pancreatic neuro-endocrine tumours (e.g. insulinoma, gastrinoma)

MEN 2 [Sipple's syndrome]

- Primary hyperparathyroidism
- Medullary carcinoma of thyroid
- Pheochromocytoma

Autoimmune Polyendocrine Syndromes

Autoimmune disease affecting many glands and organs. They are 2 types:

1. Polyglandular syndrome type 1: (autosomal recessive) Characterized by:
 1. Mucocutaneous candidiasis
 2. Hypoparathyroidism
 3. Addison's disease
2. Polyglandular syndrome type 2 = **Schmidt's syndrome**: (autosomal dominant)
More in adult ♀, strongly associated with HLA-DR3.
 1. Addison's disease in all patients
 2. Autoimmune hypothyroidism
 3. Graves' disease
 4. Autoimmune Hypophysitis
 5. Type-1 diabetes,
 6. Primary hypogonadism
 7. Pernicious anaemia
 8. Vitiligo
 9. Celiac disease
 10. Myasthenia gravis





Disorders of Anterior Pituitary

According to size pituitary tumors are divided into:

- Microadenoma: < 1 cm
- Macroadenoma: > 1 cm, may compress optic chiasm \rightarrow Bitemporal hemianopia

Pituitary tumors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-secreting tumor (usually macroadenoma) • Prolactinoma (commonest secreting pit. tumor) Micro in ♀ Macro in ♂ • GH secreting: Acromegaly (usually macroadenoma) • ACTH secreting: Cushing disease (microadenomas) • TSH secreting: 2ndy hyperthyroidism. Rare (microadenoma)

Hyperprolactinoma

Definition: Excess prolactin secretion from ant. Pit.

Etiology

1. Pit. tumor
2. Physiological: Pregnancy, OCP, Lactation, Stress
3. Loss of inhibition by dopamine by drugs e.g. Antipsychotic, Antiemetics (Phenothiazine, Haloperidol, Metoclopramide)
4. Increased stimulation by TRH (in hypothyroidism)
5. Polycystic ovary syndrome

Clinical features

- ♀: Galactorrhea is common, Oligo/amenorrhea, infertility
- ♂: Galactorrhea is rare, impotence, infertility \pm features of macroadenoma

loss of hair \Rightarrow shaving

Investigations

- \uparrow Prolactin levels
- MRI brain

Treatment

- Medical: Dopamine agonist [Bromocriptine, Cabergoline] is the first line of Rx
- S/E: Nausea, Vomiting, Postural hypotension
- If medical ttt fails OR there is compressive symptoms \rightarrow trans-sphenoidal surgery
- Radiotherapy may be used to prevent regrowth after medical or surgical Rx

Done Echo every 6 month due to S/E of drug.

Acromegaly



Definition: clinical state due ↑ Growth hormone from pit. tumor (usually macroadenoma)

Clinical features :

- Skin
 - ↑ Sweating hyper trophy of SG
 - Course ~
 - Oily skin ~ of Seb. G
- Mouth
 - Separation of teeth
 - Large tongue
 - Prognathism protrusion of mandible
- Bones
 - Frontal bossing بالد
 - Spade-like hands
 - ↑ shoe size
- Organomegaly
 - Goiter
 - hepatomegaly
 - Splenomegaly
- Macroadenoma
 - headaches pressure on chura.
 - Bitemporal hemianopia
 - hypopituitarism
- Proximal myopathy
- ↑ prolactin in 1/3 of pt → galactorrhea

Complications

- Hypertension
- DM (10%) to 30%
- Cardiomyopathy
- Colorectal cancer
- Osteoarthritis ⇒ generalized
- Osteoporosis
- Carpal tunnel syndrome hyper trophy of flexor retinaculum
- Obstructive sleep apnea

Investigations

BIC - (Pulsatile level) (Diurnal variation) of GH.

- Growth hormone (GH) levels vary during the day and are therefore not diagnostic.
- Screening test → ↑ Serum **IGF-1** [Insulin-like growth factor]. It is produced by the liver under the stimulation of GH.
- Confirmatory test → **Oral glucose tolerance (OGTT)**: Normal people will have GH suppression after intake of glucose but Acromegaly pt have **no suppression**.
- MRI brain.

Treatment

- Trans-sphenoidal surgery is the treatment of choice
- Medical Rx
 - Octreotide: somatostatin analogue (inhibits GH secretion)
 - Bromocriptine: dopamine agonist, (less effective than octreotide)
 - Pegvisomant: Growth hormone receptor antagonist

Hypopituitarism



Definition: combined deficiency of any of the anterior pituitary hormones.

Etiology

1. **Pituitary tumors** → Pituitary macroadenomas
→ **Craniopharyngiomas**: benign, from remnant of Rathke's Pouch. Rx is Surgical
2. **Sheehan's syndrome**: is hypopituitarism caused by infarction of the enlarged anterior pituitary during childbirth due to hypotension associated with bleeding.
3. **Pituitary apoplexy**: a sudden hemorrhage into a pituitary tumor. C/P: headache, neck stiffness, sudden blindness & hypotension. Rx: Steroid + Urgent surgery
4. Lymphocytic hypophysitis
5. Post-surgical
6. Uncommon causes: Infiltration [Sarcoidosis, hemochromatosis] TB

Clinical features & Investigations

	Earliest lost			Last lost
	GH	FSH/LH	ACTH	TSH
C/P	Weakness ↑ body fat	↓ sexual hair Infertility Oligo/amenorrhea	Adrenal insufficiency	Hypothyroid
Ix	• GH after stimulation [Insulin, OR Arginine, Glucagon]	♂ Testosterone ♀ LH FSH	• Short synacthen test • Insulin tolerance test	• TSH ↓ • T4 ↓ T3 ↓ Pit. 2011
Rx	GH	♂ Testosterone ♀ Estrogen	Cortisol	Thyroxine

- Imaging: Brain MRI should be done to look for tumor

Insulin tolerance test

- Used in Ix of hypopituitarism to detect Growth hormone & Cortisol deficiency
- IV insulin given, GH and cortisol levels measured
- With normal pituitary function GH and cortisol should rise

Contraindications

1. Epilepsy
2. Ischemic heart disease
3. Severe adrenal insufficiency

Disorders of Posterior pituitary

Diabetes insipidus

Definition: problem with decreased function of anti-diuretic hormone ADH = Arginine Vasopressing AVP & it may be:

- Central diabetes insipidus: ↓ production of ADH
 - Etiology
 - Idiopathic
 - Tumor
 - Trauma [Usually transient]
- Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus: ↓ renal sensitivity to ADH. (receptor problem).
 - Etiology
 - Lithium
 - Hypokalemia
 - Polycystic kidney disease

Clinical features

- Polyuria & Polydipsia [Up to 20 L of urine/day]

Investigations

- Urine has low specific gravity and osmolality.
- **Water-deprivation test:** To differentiate bw Cranial & Nephrogenic
 - 8 hours supervised with Hourly plasma osmolality and urine osmolality
 - Hourly wt [if > 3% of body weight loss stop the test]
 - Normal people will concentrate urine But pt with DI don't
 - If cause is cranial urine is concentrated after desmopressin

Response to Water Deprivation Test		
Initial Urine Osmolality < 300 mOsm/kg	After Dehydration Urine Osmolality > 600 mOsm/kg	After ↑ in Urine Osmolality > 600 mOsm/kg desmopressin
Normal	+	-
Cranial DI	No response	+
Nephrogenic DI	No response	No response

Treatment

- Cranial DI: Desmopressin (DDAVP): an ADH analog
- Nephrogenic DI: Thiazide OR Amiloride OR NSAIDs

* others -- use --
1 * esophageal varices
2 * hemophilia

Differential Dx of polyuria & Polydipsia

1. DM
2. DI
3. Hypercalcemia
4. Renal failure
5. Psychogenic polydipsia

Syndrome of inappropriate ADH [SIADH]

Definition: inappropriately ↑ production of ADH

Etiology

1. Lung diseases → Small cell carcinoma of the lung
→ Legionella Pneumonia (w/ hyponatremia).
2. CNS disease → Stroke
→ Trauma
3. Drugs: Carbamazepine, Chlorpropamide
4. Idiopathic



Clinical features: Symptoms of Hyponatremia: headache, confusion, seizure

Diagnosis.

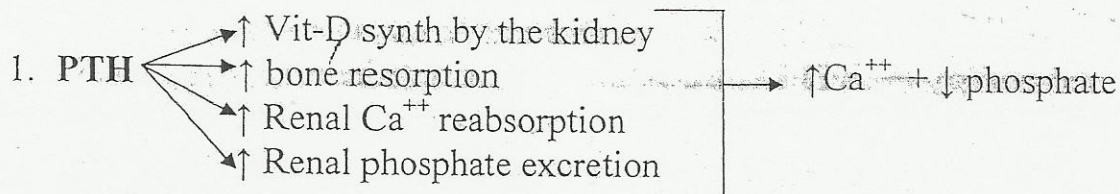
1. Hyponatremia with Serum osmolality of less than 270 mOsmol/kg.
2. Inappropriately raised urine osmolality (> 150 mOsmol/l).
3. High urinary sodium of > 30 mmol/l
4. Exclusion of other causes

Treatment

- Fluid restriction to 500 to 1000 mL daily.
- If fluid restriction fails → Demeclocycline [It ↓ collecting duct responsiveness to ADH]

Calcium disorders

- The three organs involved in calcium homeostasis are the bone (storage), kidney (excretion), and intestine (absorption).
- 3 hormones involved in calcium homeostasis:



2. Vit-D ↑ GIT absorption of Calcium & Phosphate → ↑ Ca^{++} + ↑ phosphate
3. Calcitonin decreases serum calcium levels by depositing Calcium in bone
↳ C-cells in thyroid

Hypercalcemia

ER
oral DI

Definition: Calcium level > 10.5 mg/dl

Etiology

- Hyperparathyroidism → Primary & Tertiary [NOT Secondary]
 - Primary ↑ PTH: There is ↑ PTH → Hypercalcemia
 - Secondary: Hypocalcemia [CRF, Vit-D ↓] → ↑ PTH
 - Tertiary: Prolonged ↓ Ca^{++} [CRF] → Hyperplasia of Parathyroid → ↑↑↑ PTH → ↑↑ Ca^{++}
- Tumor → bone marrow invasion → Multiple myeloma, Metastasis
 ↳ Synth. of Parathyroid-related peptide → Squamous cell carcinoma of lung
- Vit-D excess:
 - ↑ Intake
 - ↑ Formation as in granulomatous disease e.g. • Sarcoidosis • TB
- Thiazide
- Others: • Immobilization • Milk-Alkali syndrome • Glucocorticoid deficiency

Management of Hypercalcemia

- Rehydrate patient with iv N saline (0.9%) 4-6 L
- Diuretics: after patient is rehydrated, continue N saline infusion and add **Frusemide**
- Bisphosphonates: inhibit osteoclast activity → ↓ plasma Ca^{2+} . [e.g. Pamidronate]
- Steroids: Most effective in Vit-D excess [Sarcoidosis], and malignancies
 - Other drugs that may be used: Calcitonin. Mithramycin
 - If the pt has renal failure consider dialysis

Primary hyperparathyroidism

Epidemiology

- More in ♀ > 50 yrs
- It is Associated with multiple endocrine neoplasia: MEN I and II

Etiology

- Solitary adenoma (80%) commonest cause of hyperparathyroidism & hypercalcemia
- Multiple adenomas
- Hyperplasia (15%)
- Carcinoma

Clinical features – [Bones, Stones, abdominal groans and psychic moans]

- 50% of pts are asymptomatic
- الماء Polydipsia, polyuria [Severe Dehydration may occur]
- Abdominal: • Pain • Peptic ulceration • Constipation • Pancreatitis
- Bones
 - Bone pain/fracture
 - Bone cysts: Osteitis fibrosa cystica [Brown tumors]
 - Resorption of phalanges
- Renal stones, Nephrocalcinosis
- Depression
- **Hypertension**
- Impaired glucose tolerance

Investigations

- PTH is raised → Raised calcium + Low phosphate + ↑ Alkaline phosphatase
- X-ray
 - Skull: pepper-pot appearance (cystic)
 - Hands: Terminal resorption of phalanges disappear.
 - of Joints: Chondrocalcinosis mainly occur in pseudo joint
- Localization: Technetium-MIBI subtraction scan

Treatment

- Surgical: Total parathyroidectomy
- Surgery is indicated for Pts < 50 yrs with **symptoms** or complications e.g. PU. Renal stones. Osteopenia
- Hungry bone syndrome: hypocalcemia after removal of adenoma Rx: Calcium

Milk-Alkali syndrome: It is due to ingestion of large quantities of calcium and absorbable alkali. Leading to Hypercalcemia, Systemic alkalosis, and Nephrocalcinosis.

Hypocalcemia

Definition: Calcium level < 8 mg/dl

Notes:

- 50% of Ca^{2+} ionized [active form] & 50% is non-ionized or protein-bound [not active].
- Total Ca^{2+} level should be corrected the level of albumin by adding 0.8 mg/dl of Ca^{2+} for each 1 mg/dl of albumin reduction below 4 mg/dl.
- In presence of Alkalosis Ca^{2+} will from ionized to non-ionized \rightarrow Symp of hypocalcemia

Etiology = DDX of Tetany

1. Hypoparathyroidism
2. Vit D deficiency \rightarrow In children \rightarrow Rickets'
 \rightarrow In adults \rightarrow Osteomalacia
3. **Renal failure** (most common cause for hypocalcemia)
4. **Alkalosis** e.g. Resp. alkalosis due to hyperventilation asthma, or PE.
5. Hypomagnisemia (R-F type I)
6. Acute pancreatitis

Clinical features

- Perioral and peripheral numbness
- Tetany is defined as increased excitability of peripheral nerves.
 - \rightarrow Manifest \rightarrow Carpal-pedal spasm: Flexion of MCP with Extension of IP
 - \rightarrow Laryngospasm \rightarrow Stridor
- Tetany
 - \rightarrow Latent \rightarrow Chvostek's sign: tapping facial N \rightarrow twitching of facial ms.
 - \rightarrow Trousseau's sign: Inflation of a sphygmomanometer $>$ systolic BP for 3 minutes \rightarrow Carpal spasm.
- Seizures
- Prolonged QT interval \rightarrow Arrhythmias
- Prolonged may \rightarrow Cataract
- Hypertension may occur

Treatment

- If the cause is alkalosis \rightarrow Rebreathing expired air in a paper bag or closed mask.
- 10 ml of 10% Calcium gluconate very slowly IV over 10 minutes

Hypoparathyroidism

Etiology

- Post-thyroidectomy [commonest cause of hypoparathyroidism]
- Autoimmune hypoparathyroidism
- Congenitally absent [DiGorge syndrome]

Clinical feature: As above

Investigations

- X-ray of skull: Calcification of the Basal ganglia
- PTH is reduced \rightarrow Low calcium + Raised phosphate

Treatment

- Oral calcium + Vit-D analogues e.g. 1,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol (calcitriol).

Pseudohypoparathyroidism

Definition: a hereditary disease which is characterized by:

1. Resistance of kidney & bones to the action of PTH \rightarrow \downarrow Calcium & \downarrow Phosphate
2. Skeletal abnormalities (**Albright's hereditary osteodystrophy**): Short stature, with shortening of the 4th metacarpal & metatarsal bones.

Skeletal abnormalities may occur without PTH resistance = Pseudopseudohypoparathyroidism

Ix: PTH is elevated with Low calcium + Raised phosphate.

Rx: As hypoparathyroidism

Osteomalacia

Definition: clinical picture caused by Vit-D deficiency in Adults

C/P:

- Bone Pain and tenderness.
- Proximal myopathy mainly affecting the legs.

Ix:

- Low Vit-D \rightarrow Low Calcium + Low Phosphate + \uparrow Alkaline phosphatase
- X-ray: **Looser's zones** = Pseudofractures

Rx: Vit-D supplement

Diabetes Mellitus

It's metabolic syndrome characterized by inability of the body to decrease the level of glucose in the blood

Function of insulin

- anabolic hormone

- ↓ ketogenesis

- ↑

- ↓ lipogenesis ↑

- ↑ glycogenesis

- ↓ lipolysis

Diabetes mellitus

Definition: It is a clinical syndrome characterised by chronic hyperglycemia at levels sufficient to cause microvascular complications & the hyperglycemia may be due to absolute or relative deficiency of insulin.

Epidemiology

- Most common cause of blindness in age group 20-65 years
- Most common cause for lower limb amputation.
- Most common cause for CRF

	<u>Type 1</u> <i>1DDM</i>	<u>Type 2</u> <i>NIDDM</i> <small>use arabic number</small>	
Epidemiology	10% of cases Age < 40 $\text{♂} > \text{♀}$ More in Caucasians	85 % of cases Age usually ≥ 20 [Except MODY] $\text{♂} = \text{♀}$ More in Asian, Black	* 5% 2y DM
Genetics	Both parents affected 30% risk Identical twins: 50% concordance HLA DR3/4, DQ8 Association	Both parents affected: 90%-100% risk <i>60%</i> Identical twins: up to 90% concordance No HLA association	
Etiology	<u>Autoimmune damage of pancreatic β-cell</u>	<u>Insulin resistance of unknown origin</u> <i>not an autoimmune</i>	→ 0.1%
Antibodies	90% of pt have anti-islet cell antibodies	No Associated antibodies Amyloid deposition in islets of pancreatic cells	
Metabolism	Ketosis prone ; Absolute insulin deficiency	Ketosis-resistant ; insulin levels may be high, normal, or low	
Clinical features	<u>Normal or low body weight</u>	<u>Usually obese</u> Acanthosis nigricans often asymptomatic	
Treatment	Insulin <i>associated with other autoimmune diseases</i>	<u>Weight loss \pm Oral agents OR Insulin</u>	

Risk factors for DM type 2:

- Acanthosis nigricans • Gestational DM • Polycystic ovary synd.
- Diagnostic Features of Metabolic Syndrome X (≥ 3 the following) *MCO*
 1. Abdominal obesity (waist circumference: men > 102 cm, women > 88 cm)
 2. Hypertriglyceridemia (≥ 150 mg/dL) *-hypertriglyceridemia*
 3. Low HDL cholesterol (men < 40 mg/dL, women < 50 mg/dL) *-raised fibrinogen*
 4. Hypertension ($\geq 130/85$ mmHg) *-hyper insulinemia*
 5. Fasting hyperglycemia (≥ 110 mg/dL)

Clinical features

- Asymptomatic "accidental diagnosis"
- Signs of complication of DM
 - blurring of vision
 - Neuropathy
 - Ischemic vascular changes
 - Recurrent infection

❖ 5% of DM are due to secondary causes:

1. Endocrinal diseases Anti-insulin hormones]
 - a. Glucagonoma -polyglycemia Glucagon
 - b. Cushing's syndrome Cortisol
 - c. Acromegaly Growth hormone
 - d. Pheochromocytoma Catecholamines
 - e. Thyrotoxicosis Thyroxine
2. Pancreatic damage: DM occurs when > 80% of pancreas is damaged
 - a. Ch. pancreatitis
 - b. Hemochromatosis
3. Gestational diabetes (50% diabetic in 10 years)
4. Drugs: • Thiazides • Cortisol

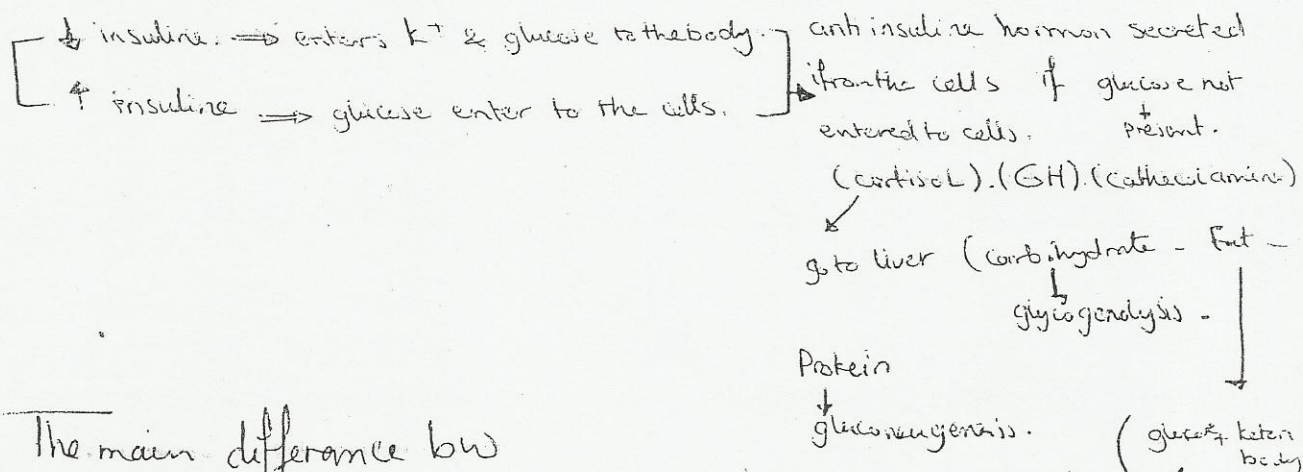
*-hypertension
-Friedrich ataxia*

Clinical features

- Polydipsia & Polyuria + Nocturia [due to osmotic diuresis]
- Weight loss despite Polyphagia [Mainly in DM Type 1]
- Weakness
- Infections of the skin, vulva, and urinary tract.
- Blurring of vision: due to changes in optic lens shape due to hyperglycemia.

➤ Symptoms of Ketosis: [Occur mainly in type 1 DM, & very rarely in type 2DM]

- Abdominal pain & vomiting
- Kussmaul breathing
- Acetone smell



The main difference b/w

DM 1 & DM 2 \Rightarrow

* Small amount of insulin inhibit lipolysis.

so keton body not formed.

Triglyceride keton body

- Blood Tests

Fasting > 126

Random ≥ 200

- Urine test

~~glucose~~ - glycosuria

- ketonuria

- Lipid profile

- 24 hour urine collection to check for microalbuminuria (normally less than 30)

- Fundoscopy to check the retina

- Blood pressure

- BMI

- Hemoglobin A1c

Diagnosis of DM

Values are based on venous plasma.

- **With symptoms** [Polydipsia, Polyuria]: Fasting glucose $> 7.0 \text{ mmol/l}$ OR Random glucose $> 11.1 \text{ mmol/l}$ OR a glucose of $> 11.1 \text{ mmol/l}$ 2 hours after 75 g GTT [GTT to be performed when fasting glucose is $> 6 \text{ mmol/l}$ and, if diabetes is suspected, when random blood glucose is $< 11.1 \text{ mmol/l}$]
- **Without symptoms:** Either Fasting glucose $> 7 \text{ mmol/l}$ OR random glucose $> 11.1 \text{ mmol/l}$, present on two occasions.
 - $7 \text{ mmol/l} = 126 \text{ mg/dL}$
 - $11 \text{ mmol/l} = 200 \text{ mg/dL}$

Diagnosis of Impaired glucose tolerance (Prediabetes)

- **Impaired glucose tolerance:** 2-hour GTT glucose $> 7.8 \text{ mmol/l}$ but $< 11.1 \text{ mmol/l}$
 $> 140 \text{ mg/dL}$ but $< 200 \text{ mg/dL}$
- **Impaired fasting glucose:** Fasting glucose $> 6.1 \text{ mmol/l}$ but $< 7.0 \text{ mmol/l}$
 $> 110 \text{ mg/dL}$ but $< 126 \text{ mg/dL}$

Impaired glucose tolerance \neq Hyperglycemia. Pt with Impaired glucose tolerance don't have \uparrow risk of microvascular disease, but it \uparrow the risk of macrovascular complications.

20% of pt with IGT will progress to type 2 DM within 5 years

Hemoglobin A_{1c} (glycosylated hemoglobin)

- HbA_{1c} measures the average serum glucose concentrations over the prior 2-3 months.
- It is NOT used for Diagnosis *only for follow up*
- Ideal goal for HbA_{1c} is $< 7\%$
- \uparrow HbA_{1c} is associated with \uparrow microvascular complication [not macrovascular]

every increase in HbA_{1c} by 1% it equals 2 mmol/l

So if someone has HbA_{1c} 13% it means that the patient had blood glucose level $13 \text{ mmol/l} = 352 \text{ mg/dL}$

Treatment of DM type 1

- All pts require insulin replacement + Life-style changes as type 2
- Oral hypoglycemia are not used.

Treatment of DM type 2

1. Life-style [aim for ideal body weight as Obesity increases insulin resistance]

- Dietary advice ➔ ↓ refined carbohydrate and ↑ complex carbohydrate intake.
 ➔ Reduce saturated fat.
 ➔ Avoid excessive alcohol.

➤ Exercise 30 min at least

2. Oral hypoglycemic agents

Drug	Mode of Action	Side-effects	Contraindications
<u>Sulphonylureas:</u> ★ • Gliclazide • Glibenclamide • Tolbutamide	• ↑ insulin release [block K^+ channel in β -cell of pancreas causing its depolarization]	• Weight gain • Hypoglycemia <i>2nd failure to treatment</i>	<i>Pregnancy</i> <i>lactation</i> <i>hepatic & renal failure</i>
<u>Biguanides:</u> ★ • Metformin	• ↓ hepatic ↑ peripheral uptake gluconeogenesis • ↓ insulin resistance = ↑ sensitivity of receptors	• GIT upset • Lactic acidosis <i>* (no hypoglycemia)</i> <i>renal deficiency</i>	• Renal failure • Heart failure <i>hepatic</i> <i>pregnancy</i>
<u>Thiazolidinediones:</u> • Rosiglitazone • Pioglitazone	• ↓ insulin resistance by activating (PPAR- γ) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor	• Hypoglycemia • Hepatotoxicity • Fluid retention	• Heart failure
<u>Meglitinides:</u> • Repaglinide • Nateglinide	• ↑ insulin release	• Hepatotoxic • Hypoglycemia	
<u>α-Glucosidase inhibitors:</u> acarbose <i>taken b. meal.</i>	• ↓ carbohydrate digestion	• Bloating • diarrhea	

- Metformin is the drug of first choice in overweight patients
- Sulphonylureas are considered for patients who are not overweight, or in whom metformin is contra-indicated or not tolerated.

* (lactic acidosis mortality rate 50%)

↳ can be compared to each other if one of them failed to give result.

How to give insulin?

- subcutaneous injection
- ant. abdominal wall, thigh, deltoid, buttock area
- change the site of ins. injection

Regimes of treatment

- Twice daily 2 i.d. = intermediate acting "mixed"

- 3 dose soluble insulin 30 min before each meal + an intermediate acting insulin at bedtime

* Hypoglycemia

When blood sugar \downarrow less than 50 mg/dL

- neuroglycopenic symptoms "confused, headache, fatigue, disoriented"
- stimulation to catecholamines (sweating, palpitation, nausea, shivering)

treat the patient with sweet "monosachride" chemical recovery

Causes of hypoglycemia

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------------------|
| - not eating | - poor regime |
| - mal absorption | - lipohypertrophy |
| - over dose | - hepatic or renal problems |
| - insulinoma | - hypoadrenalism, hypopituitarism |

3. Insulin: 30% of type 2 DM will require insulin people with type 2 diabetes.

Regimes for giving insulin:

- Twice daily regime of Mix of Short-acting & Intermediate-acting insulin (NPH).
- Multiple injection regimens: Basal Glargine which cover 24 hrs with short-acting insulin being taken before each meal

Insulin	Onset	Peak	Duration
Rapid-acting			
• Lispro	< $\frac{1}{2}$ hr	1 hr	4 hr
• Aspart			
Short-acting			
• Soluble (Regular)	1 hr	3 hr	8 hr
Intermediate-acting:			
• Isophane (NPH)	2hr to 3hr	8 hr	16 hr
• Lente			
Long-acting:			
• Ultralente	6 hr	16 hr	24 hr
• Glargine	1hr	No Peak	24 hrs

Side-effects of insulin

1. Hypoglycemia
2. Weight gain
3. Peripheral edema (insulin \rightarrow salt and water retention)
4. Lipodystrophy at injection sites & lipohypertrophy

Special situations

- **Honeymoon period**: a temporary phase in the first 1-2 yrs after the onset of DM type 1. There is temporary improvement in β -cell function \rightarrow hypoglycemic attack \rightarrow reduction in the dose of exogenous insulin.
- **Somogyi-effect**: ^{\uparrow insulin dose -} Insulin-induced hypoglycemia \rightarrow release of counterregulatory ^{at night} hormones such as epinephrine and glucagon \rightarrow **Rebound Morning Hyperglycemia**. Pt usually have nightmares. Rx: \downarrow the dose of evening NPH. in the morning.
- **Dawn phenomenon**: Morning hyperglycemia due to early morning circadian release of cortisol, growth hormone, & catecholamines. Rx: \uparrow the dose evening NPH.

Recommended goals for glycemic control in patients with DM

- Hemoglobin A_{1c} < 7%
- Preprandial glucose 90-130 mg/dL
- Postprandial glucose < 180 mg/dL

Complications of DM

➤ Microvascular

1. Retinopathy (90%)
 2. Neuropathy (70%-90%)
 3. Nephropathy (30%-40%) usually within 20 yrs of onset of disease.
- Microvascular complications take minimum of 5 years to develop, even with poor glycemic control.
 - Tight glycemic control may decrease the risk of Microvascular complications by 50%

➤ Macrovascular

1. Ischemic heart disease (accounts for 70% of deaths in DM pts)
 2. Peripheral vascular disease
 3. CVA, hypertension
- Macrovascular complication which is responsible for most of the increased mortality in DM. It is not closely related to the glycemic control → The Aim of management is to reduce other risk factors for IHD:
 1. BP control. The goal is $< 130/80$ mmHg. First-line drug is ACE inhibitors.
 2. Smoking cessation.
 3. Lipid Rx: Test annually. Goals: LDL < 100 mg/dL, triglycerides < 50 mg/dL, and HDL > 40 mg/dL. drug studies
 4. Consider aspirin therapy for primary or secondary prevention.
 5. Consider screening for coronary artery disease.

Screening

- Screening is annual & Started after 5 yrs of Dx for DM type 1 & at time of Dx for DM type 2.
- **Diabetic nephropathy:** Screen for Microalbuminuria [30-299 μ g albumin/mg creatinine]
- **Diabetic retinopathy:** by ophthalmologist

Vaccination

- Annual influenza vaccine should be given to all pts with DM.
- Pneumococcal vaccine is recommended for all diabetic adults at least once.

Diabetic Retinopathy → treatable

- Background or non-proliferative retinopathy → follow up
- Proliferative retinopathy → laser photocoagulation
- 50% of visual loss in type 2 DM is due to causes other than diabetic retinopathy.
e.g. cataract,

Diabetic Nephropathy → treatable

- **Stages:** ↑GFR → Microalbuminuria → albuminuria → Nephrotic syndrome → ESRD
asymptomatic stage (30-300) *>3gm*
- Control of blood pressure & ACE inhibitor reduced the progression renal disease.

Diabetic Neuropathy not treatable

- Polyneuropathy
 - Symmetrical sensory with stocks distribution ± gloves ± Charcot's joints
 - Asymmetrical, mainly motor
- Mononeuritis multiplex: commonly CN III [pupil is spared] *oculomotor nerve*
- Diabetic amyotrophy: Quadriceps wasting + painful skin
- Autonomic neuropathy *↓ sympathetic activity*
 - Postural hypotension
 - Gastroparesis *food sitting in stomach > 5hrs*
 - Diarrhea or Constipation
 - Impotence *50% in 5 yr of the disease*

↓
End stage
Renal disease

Examination of DM pt:

- Look for Postural hypotension
- Examine Eyes by ophthalmoscope
- Look for Site of injection
- Lower limbs for • Infection • Peripheral pulses • Sensory changes

Acute complications of DM

Data

Diabetic Ketoacidosis & Hyperosmolar Hyperglycemic state

Nonketotic

- DKA is seen mainly type 1 DM and HHS mainly in type 2 DM. But DKA may occur in severe cases of type 2.
- DKA is associated with absolute Insulin deficiency [type 1 DM] & HHS is associated relative Insulin deficiency [type 2 DM]
- Ketosis does not develop in HHS because these pts have enough insulin to suppress lipolysis & ketogenesis, but not enough to prevent the liver from producing glucose.
- In both hyperglycemia → Volume depletion

Laboratory Changes in DKA and HHS

Investigations	DKA Type 1	HHS Type 2
Glucose	250-600	600-1200
Sodium	125-135	135-145
Potassium	Normal or ↑	Normal
Osmolality (mOsm/ml)	300-320	330-380
Plasma ketones	++++	Normal or Slightly +
Arterial pH	6.8-7.3	> 7.3
Arterial Pco ₂	20-30	Normal
Anion gap	↑	Normal to slightly ↑

metabolic ↑

Precipitating factors for DKA and HHS

1. Inadequate insulin administration
2. Infection (pneumonia, UTI, gastroenteritis, sepsis)
3. Infarction (cerebral, coronary, mesenteric, peripheral)
4. Surgery
5. Drugs (cocaine)

stress ↑ Stress hormone secretion
↓
(anti-insulin hormone)

- missed insulin dose
- trauma for underlying cause

- CXR → PTT.
- urine analysis
- CT scan.

DD of breath odor

- acetone \rightarrow DKA
- winey breath \rightarrow renal failure
- almond like odor \rightarrow cyanide toxicity
- garlicky \rightarrow organophosphates

Diabetic ketoacidosis

Clinical feature

- Polyuria, Polydipsia, & weight loss. → *ketonuria*
- Anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and abdominal pain. *blurred vision*
- Kussmaul respirations and an acetone odor on the pt's breath.
- Vital signs: ↑ HR, ↓ BP, ↑ RR, ± Fever *weak puls, cold extremities*
- Altered mental function, or even coma. *electrolyte disturbance*

Investigations:

- RBS → Hyperglycemia [The degree of hyperglycemia does not correlate with the severity of the metabolic acidosis]
- Plasma & Urine ketone (β -hydroxybutyrate, & acetoacetate) **+++**
- ABG: Metabolic acidosis (arterial pH 6.8–7.3).
- WBC: Leukocytosis is common due to stress → *reactive neutrophils*
- ALL pt have a total-body potassium deficit, but the serum potassium at presentation is usually high due to acidosis. *or normal.*
- The measured serum sodium is reduced as a due to hyperglycemia.
↑ & anion gap doesn't mean problem with pncertase

Complications of DKA

1. Cerebral edema [it has high mortality, more in children, associated with rapid reduction of blood glucose and use of bicarbonate, and is Rx with mannitol]
2. Acute respiratory distress syndrome
3. Thromboembolism
4. Disseminated intravascular coagulation (rare) *DIC*
5. Acute circulatory failure

DKA Prognosis: Mortality about 10%.

Hyperglycemic Hyperosmolar State

Clinical features

- Typically an elderly pt with Polyuria, thirst, weight loss ± ↓ level of consciousness.
- Symptoms of Vomiting, Abdominal pain & Kussmaul respirations are ABSENT.

Investigation (see table above)

Treatment is the same as DKA except that they **need Less insulin**

- The pts have high risk of thrombosis → Prophylactic insulin **Heparin**
** (due to dehydration)*

HHS Prognosis: Mortality rate about 40% due to the presence of other disease e.g. **IHD**

Management of DKA

- Admit to hospital.
- Replacement *« Rehydration »*

1. Fluids:

- 0.9% saline (NaCl) I.V.
 - 1 liter over 30 minutes
 - 1 liter over 1 hr
 - 1 liter over 2 hrs
 - 1 liter over 4 hrs
 - 1 liter 8-hourly
- When blood glucose 270 mg/dl
 - Switch to 5% dextrose, [to ↓ risk of brain edema]
- Typical requirement is 6 liters in first 24 hrs.

2. Electrolyte (K):

- If pt plasma potassium is < 3.5 mmol/L or normal 3.5-5 mmol/L. Give K^+
- If pt is hyperkalemia > 5.0 mmol/L. Don't give until it falls to normal range
- Avoid K^+ infusion rate of > 20 mmol/hr

3. Sodium bicarbonate (1.4%): may be given if arterial pH is 6.9 or less.

4. Administer regular insulin:

- 50 units soluble insulin in 50 ml 0.9% saline I.V. via infusion pump
- 6 units/hr initially
- 3 units/hr when blood glucose < 270 mg/dl
- 2 units/hr if blood glucose declines < 10 mmol/l (180 mg/dl)
- Administer intermediate or long-acting insulin as soon as patient is eating.
- Allow for overlap in insulin infusion and subcutaneous insulin injection.

➤ Monitoring:

- Blood glucose every 1-2 h.
- Urea & electrolytes (mainly K^+) & ABG every 4 h for first 24 h.
- BP, pulse, respirations, mental status, and fluid intake & output every 1-4 h.

➤ Investigate for the cause: ECG, CXR, CBC, CRP

➤ Antibiotics if infection is present.

note: * at 1st half hr of supplementation of s/c insulin injection let the insulin infusion pump b/c the ~ ~ ~ take $\frac{1}{2}$ hr to be act.

Hypoglycemia

Definition: blood glucose levels < 50 mg/dl

All DM pt should be educated about the symptoms of hypoglycemia

Clinical features:

- ↑ sympathetic activity: • Sweating • Tremor • Tachycardia • Anxiety • Hunger
- Neuroglycopenic symptoms: • Dizziness • Headache • Confusion • Seizures • Focal neurological deficit • Coma

Rx:

- Conscious → Oral
- ↓ level of consciousness → 50 ml 50% dextrose IV
- If no vein can be canulated → Glucagon IM *→ very powerfull*

	DKA	Hypoglycemia
History	Missed insulin	Missed meal
Onset	Slow	Rapid
Skin & Tongue	Dry	Moist
Pupils	Normal	Dilated
Respiration	Kussmaul's	Normal
Breath	Acetone	Normal
Pulse	Weak & Rapid	Good
BP	Low	High
Symptoms	Abdominal pain	no
Urine	Glucose & acetone	Normal
Blood glucose	High	Low
Response to glucose	No effect	Rapid improvement

DDx of Hypoglycemia unrelated to diabetes

1. Insulinoma
2. Factitious (insulin or sulphonylurea)
3. Adrenal insufficiency
4. Alcohol
5. Severe liver failure
6. Salicylate poisoning

Note: Endogenous insulin is secret with C-peptide But Exogenous insulin has no C-peptide

Gynecomastia DDx:

1. Puberty
2. Obesity
3. Idiopathic
4. ↑ Estrogen: Liver cirrhosis. Hyperthyroidism
5. Drugs: • Digoxin • Spironolactone • Cimetidine • Estrogen

Hirsutism DDx:

1. Idiopathic [most common cause]
2. Drugs: • Cyclosporin • Minoxidil • Androgen • Cortisol
3. Ovarian: • Polycystic ovary syndrome • Ovarian tumor
4. Adrenal: • Cushing disease • Congenital adrenal hyperplasia

Hypertriglyceridemia DDx:

1. Alcoholism
2. Obesity
3. Ch. Renal disease
4. Liver disease
5. DM
6. High-dose estrogen

Hypercholesterolemia DDx:

1. Hypothyroidism
2. Cigarette smoking
3. Nephrotic syndrome
4. Cholestatic liver disease [e.g. primary biliary cirrhosis]